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ABSTRACT

A study examined the uses and functions of broadcast sports programming as compared with in-person attendance of sporting events by focusing on the motivations, behavior, and attitudes of audiences toward such activities. Subjects, 219 students from a major western university, completed a survey instrument. Findings indicated that: (1) sports consumers received social interaction gratifications with family and friends through both in-person attendance and broadcast sports; (2) release from emotional tensions was evident, although more so in live sports attendance; (3) cognitive needs were gratified through attendance and broadcast activities; (4) sports fans received ego satisfaction through the personal identity functions with athletes, although more so at in-person events; and (5) yelling and disputing officials calls and coaches' tactics during sports provides a socially approved outlet for otherwise unacceptable behavior. (Five tables of data are included and 17 references are attached.) (SR)

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A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE AUDIENCE FOR BROADCAST SPORTS AND IN-PERSON SPORTS

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the uses and functions of broadcast sports programming as compared with in-person sporting events by focusing on the motivations, behavior, and attitudes of audiences toward such activities. Findings both confirm and contradict the literature. Exhibited behavior of the broadcast sports audience appeared to be associated with gender; whereas, in-person sports attendance appeared to provide a more positive, active opportunity to interact with family and friends.

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A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE AUDIENCE FOR BROADCAST SPORTS AND IN-PERSON SPORTS

Why would a sports fan choose to attend a sports event in-person rather than "attending" -- often free of charge and inconvenience -- through the broadcast media? What motivations lead sports audiences into making such decisions? Is sitting in the stadium indeed different from watching or listening via the television or radio station? While broadcast sports programming has expanded significantly in the last decade -- through local radio and television stations and national broadcast networks and, more recently, through cable outlets such as HBO and ESPN, research about such programming has been sparse.

In an essay exploring the attraction of sports, Lodato (1979) suggested that sports "serve the purpose of providing the fan with an outlet for vicarious conflict resolution," which he described as possibly the "most important contribution sports make to our culture" (p. 52). Immediate time-oriented resolution and responsibility-free resolution were among the salient factors cited.

Acknowledging that sport has been viewed as an integrating force on the national level, Wilkerson and Dodder (1985) discussed the impact of sport in activating "collective conscience" on the community level in modern societies. Winning in sports, they noted, can provide a validation of worth for athlete and spectator alike: "With so much personal investment, sport becomes more than playing a game. It becomes a dramatization of a life and death struggle between good and evil" (p. 228).

Lee (1985) interviewed 223 male university undergraduates in a field experiment designed to examine the processes by which the expression of

identification with a sports team is determined. The results suggested that self-esteem and ego-involvement are important variables in eliciting the expression of ingroup sentiments. In fact, significant differences in the rate of recall of game outcomes were related to personal success/failure.

Strong identification with the role model of the successful athlete, whose feats of skill they wish to duplicate on the playing area, was offered by Lewis (1982) in his analysis of why young, white males involve themselves in fan violence at sporting events. (He also noted that one theoretical viewpoint is that these fans have little or no identity with work, school, family, or religion, and no sense of personal worth; however, another position argues that fan violence is merely an extension of the sport per se.)

Celozzi et al. (1981) conducted an experiment with 81 male high school seniors to determine the impact of viewing an aggressive contact sport. They found that while exposure to violence through the film media has an addictive effect on viewers' level of aggression, the effect was not, however, constant across viewers. Those who had low trait aggression scores were less effected than those with high trait aggression scores.

Examining the role of media reports of the often violent activities of (British) football crowds, Whannel (1979) noted that watching televised football is "not simply watching a match at home; but watching a presentation that constructs the football world in a particular way" (p. 338). He suggested that television's infusion of "show business/entertainment values" into the game has resulted in audiences expectating "spectacle rather than a contest."

> The excitement of entertainment is more certain, guaranteed than that of sport can ever be. The audience has a more rigid assumption that it will get value for money, whereas the traditional sports crowd has come to accept that all matches will not be equally good. And the audience is passive — there more to observe, appreciate and then acclaim the performers, than to roar them on or become actively involved in their fact (p. 338).

Hocking (1982) suggested that the reason people would attend a football game when they could stay comfortably at home and watch it on technically superior TV (with advantageous camera angles and instant replays, etc.) was "intra-audience effects" -- his term for stadium spectators' reactions to other spectators. The concept of intra-audience effects also helps to explain the appeal of the "stadium event," which he claimed television covers badly, although it excels in coverage of the "game event." Hocking argued that intra-audience effects are a major factor in making attendance at a live sports event a very different experience from viewing the same contest on television.

Of four reasons offered by Parente (1977) to explain why TV has become such an important factor in sports decisions, two concerned a comparison with in-person attendance: (1) broadcast revenue appears to be less dependent on the changing whims of attending fans and, thus, a more stable source of income; (2) sports decision-makers appear to have found it easier to change the nature of their sport to appeal to TV rather than the live spectator. Thus, the National Football League cut halftime intermission to better fit the three-hour TV format, golf changed from match to medal or stroke play, and tennis introduced the tie-breaker to end the drawn-out deuce games. In his discussion of the difference between watching sports on television and viewing sports in person, Parente also suggested that television imposes its own structure and provides its own ideological viewpoints that mediate the viewers' experience of the event. For example, announcer comments (not necessarily unbiased or reliable) can alter the view of what is being seen.

Television's sports commentary has also been found to exercise a powerful effect in influencing viewers' perceptions of play and their enjoyment of an athletic contest. In an experiment conducted by Bryant et al. (1982),

commentators presented tennis opponents as either hated enemies or devoted friends. Viewers who thought the players were feuding described the match as substantially more interesting and enjoyable as well as more exciting and involving.

In studying motivations for watching televised sports, Gantz (1981) found four dimensions, of varying import, that were consistent across four sports (baseball, football, hockey, and tennis): (1) to thrill in victory, (2) to let loose, (3) to learn, and (4) to pass time. The first dimension, comprising identification with participants and the need for vicarious success, was the most important for the active sports fan, who was typically male; females tended to watch sports on television as a "last resort" (the time-passing dimension). Amount of actual exposure to sports programming was not, however, assessed. Gantz concluded that exposure to televised sports is a functional activity that meets a variety of needs -- not unlike the multifaceted experience of actual in-person attendance. He also concluded that viewers are differentially motivated to watch TV sports programming than other types of entertainment programming.

Looking at sports programming as a significant agent of socialization, Prisuta (1979) surveyed 600 high school students to test the hypothesis that more conservative values are a function of exposure to televised sports. He found that the heavy viewer of televised sports was more authoritarian, more nationalistic, and generally more conservative --suggesting that television sports viewing is a strong predictor if not cause of one's value system. Contrary to the conventional wisdom, he also found that watching sports on television is related to both participating and watching sports in person.

As an approach to the study of mass media, the Uses and Gratifications paradigm examines needs of the receiver of media messages and how he/she uses the media to satisfy such needs. Postulates underlying this approach would include (1) that media compete with other sources of need gratifications and that different types of media compete with each other in satisfaction of needs and (2) that audience members are active and conscious of their motives and interests in exposing themselves to mass media (Katz, et al., 1974).

Gratification studies have focused on the relationships between media use and satisfaction (McLeod, et al., 1982), the distinction between gratifications sought and obtained (Palmgreen, et al., 1979), and the relationship between medium and content (Bantz, 1982). Few studies, however, have explored the differences and the similarities of uses of different types of media with in-person experiences although audiences might use such activities to satisfy quite different needs.

The Problem

The purpose of this exploratory study was to investigate the uses and functions of broadcast sports programming by focusing on the motivations, attitudes, and behavior of the individual fan toward such programming. Several research questions directed the study:

1) Does the consumer receive social interaction gratifications with family and/or friends through broadcast sports programming?

2) Does the consumer receive release from emotional tensions through broadcast sports programming?

3) Does the casual fan receive fulfillment of cognitive (informational) needs through broadcast sports programming?

4) Does the sports fan receive ego satisfaction through personal identity functions with broadcast sports figures?

5) Does the sports fan feel that broadcasting of sporting events provides a socially-approved outlet for otherwise unacceptable behavior?

6) Does the sports fan receive other distinct need satisfactions from broadcast sports as compared to in-person attendance at sport events?

7) What is the behavior of the consumer during broadcast sports?

8) How does the sports fan compare sports in person, sports on radio, and sports on television in terms of content, format, and effects?

9) Are demographics (including usage and preferences) related to responses to such questions above?

Answers to these questions can contribute to the theoretical development of the functional vein of mass communication research, especially in regard to potential effects that broadcast sports programing might have on audiences. Also, because broadcast sports programming offers reality and uncertainty of outcome, it provides researchers with an interesting contrast to other media entertainment programming.

Method

Since previous research has suggested that college students are major consumers of sports events, this exploratory study utilized students as respondents. In spring of 1988, 219 students representing a great variety of disciplines at a major western university completed a specifically-created and pre-tested self-administering in-depth survey instrument. The questionnaire was designed to elicit information about respondents' time devoted to sports (at in-person events as well as through radio and television), their sports

preferences and the delivery systems thereof, the social settings for the above, the uses and gratifications for the above, their behavior during broadcast sports, and their personal comparisons of content, form, and effects of sports delivered through in-person events, radio, or television.

The questionnaire contained items adapted from the motivation scales of Gantz, Greenberg, and Rubin. Additional items generated for this study included attitude comparison scale for sports in person vs. broadcast sports. Also collected in the survey were descriptive data detailing the number of hours attending, listening, and viewing sporting events. And quantitative survey data were summarized and group-analyzed using chi-square, t-test, and multiple regression. Reliability tests (Cronbach's Alpha) were conducted on all scales in the survey. Co-efficients are reported for all scales utilized.

Results

Of the 219 respondents completing the questionnaire, 57 percent was female while males represented 41 percent (two percent did not respond). About three-fourths of the sample fell into the sixteen to twenty age range; 22 percent of the respondents was age twenty-one to twenty-five, while 6 percent of the sample was over twenty-five. Seventy percent of the sample was at the freshman or sophomore level while 30 percent was at the junior and senior level. Caucasian respondents comprised 82 percent of the sample while minorities made up 15 percent (3 percent did not respond). Sixty-four percent of the sample was media majors, with 27 percent being distributed across the liberal arts, humanities, and the social sciences (9 percent did not respond). Thirty-four percent of the respondents viewed themselves as liberal, 50 percent as moderate while conservatives totaled 14 percent. Fifty-two percent of the respondents

regularly played sports while 38 percent have played sports in the past. Nine percent have not played sports at all. Ninety-six percent reported that they enjoyed sports while 4 percent responded negatively to spectator sport viewing.

Television was viewed as a major news source for general information (57 percent) and sports news (56 percent). Radio was considered a major source of information for news and sports by 4 percent of the sample. Newspapers were considered as news (31 percent) and sport (33 percent) sources by approximately one-third of the sample. Ten percent of the sample utilized magazines, family, and friends for news and sports information.

Almost 96 percent of the sample reported listening to less than two hours of sports on radio every week, and surprisingly, 97 percent reported listening to less than two hours of sports on radio during the weekend. Ninety-one percent of the sample watched less than two hours of sports on television during a typical week; however, television sports viewing increased during the weekend period (56 percent two hours or less and 44 percent more than two hours). Almost one-third of the sample (31 percent) rented or bought sports videotapes. Attendance in person at sporting events by the sample included: 26 percent at less than five events, 30 percent at five to ten events, and 44 percent at over ten spectator sport events per year. Fourteen percent of the sample listened to radio sports broadcasts while attending the event in person.

When asked to rank their favorite sports, football came out on top with 47 percent of the respondents. Baseball ranked second with 23 percent while basketball was a close third at 19 percent. The other respondents (11 percent) divided their favorite sports preferences among tennis, boxing, and golf.

One area of comparison of sports situations for the respondents in this study was the companionship activities or the lack of such during consumption.

Rarely did either male or female respondents attend sport events alone (2 percent for each). The variance increased when viewing televised sporting events as 10 percent of males viewed alone whereas only 3 percent of females watched TV sports alone (chi-square = 4.26, 1DF, p<.04). Almost half (47 percent) of females listened to sports events on radio alone whereas two-thirds of males (64 percent) listened to radio sports alone (chi-square = 5.16, 1DF, p<.02). Three-fourths of the males (74 percent) regularly played sports while about one third of females (36 percent) played sports (chi-square = 31.06, 2DF, p<0000).

A comparison scale examined variable perceptions of respondents on sports attendance in person vs. listening to radio sports vs. watching television sports (Cronbach's Alpha = .90). Significant results are discussed below.

Three-fourths of females (75 percent) and almost half (47 percent) of male respondents felt that listening to radio sports was exciting (chi-square = 23.2 2DF, p<.000). However, 72 percent of females and 81 percent of males did not perceive sports on television as exciting (chi-square = 6.03, 2DF, p<.04).

Approximately half of males (57 percent) and females (49 percent) felt that radio sports provided little information about sports (chi-square = 7.11, 2DF, p<.02). Forty-six percent of females and one-third of males (34 percent) felt attendance at sporting events was fun when alone whereas one-third of females (33 percent) and over half of males (53 percent) did not have fun when alone at sport events (chi-square = 8.66, 2DF, p<.01).

Table One provides a percentage comparison of behavior by gender during the consumption of broadcast sports (Cronbach's alpha = .92). Over eighty percent of the respondents (male and female) very frequently talked about the action during the broadcast. Males were more likely (73 percent) than females (54 percent) to dispute the official's call when viewing or listening (chi-square = 11.44, 1DF, p<.0007). Likewise, males (58 percent) were more likely

than females (41 percent) to yell in anger during broadcasts (chi-square = 5.14, 1DF, p<.0000). Males were more likely than females to dispute tactics of the coach (chi-square = 19.4, 1DF, p<.0000), get nervous as the contest progresses (chi-square = 6.30, 1DF, p<.01) and get depressed when favorites do poorly (chi-square = 7.96, 1DF, p<.004).

Motivation scales with high psychometric properties were found in the literature and adapted for use in the present study. These scales and their reliability coefficients included: In-person Attendance at Sport Events scale (Cronbach's alpha = .89) and Tuning to Broadcast Sports scale (Cronbach's alpha = .93). These scales provided a means of comparison on different types of gratifications respondents sought while in-person attendance at sporting events and specific needs satisfied by broadcast sports.

Respondents felt that broadcast sports provided need satisfaction in helping pass time, helping one feel less alone, provided good announcers and provided something to do with family and friends. In-person attendance gave respondents need gratifications in helping them get energized, releasing tension, forgetting about problems and generating excitement because of the uncertain outcome of live sports events. Table Two provides the scale items. Additionally, Tables Three and Four provide gratification comparisons by gender while consuming broadcast sports or attending sport events in-person.

After individual examination of the items in the various scales, each scale was computed into a new variable using SPSS procedures. Additionally, a new variable was computed that represented total sport (in-person and tune to broadcast) consumption. Then these new computed variables along with gender were entered into a stepwise multiple regression analysis procedure. The

sports consumption measure was the dependent variable with the independent variables including gender, RTV sports behavior, in-person attendance needs and tuning in RTV gratifications.

Table Five contains the results of the regression equations. One of the most interesting aspects of the regression equation was the overall low predictive power of the independent variables. The RTV Behavior scale had the strongest regression coefficient (Beta = .35), followed by Gender (Beta = .32). The In-person attendance and Tune In RTV gratification scales had low Betas.

Discussion

The findings in this exploratory study were expected in some areas, and in some respects they were surprising results. Lodato (1979) suggested that sport consumption provided fans with outlets for vicarious conflict resolution. The respondents in the present study did receive tension release and conflict enjoyment from sport consumption activities.

Hocking suggestd the reason people would attend football events rather than view the event in comfort on television at home was the "intra-audience effects" which described stadium spectators' reactions to other spectators. This sample received more satisfaction from "watching other fans go wild" at in-person sports attendance than from viewing broadcast sports.

Bryant et al. (1982) found television sports commentary exercised a very powerful effect in influencing viewers' perceptions of play and their enjoyment of an athletic contest. This group of respondents felt broadcast sports did not provide as good announcers as those at live sport events.

Gantz found four dimensions of motivations for watching television sports: to thrill in victory, to let loose, to learn, and to pass time. In the present

study, in-person attendance provided more satisfaction of "great feelings when favorites win" than did consumption of broadcast sport events. Similarly, to let off steam and get energized (to let loose) was more evident in the in-person gratifications than the sport broadcast consumption activities of this sample. Broadcast sports consumption helped "to pass the time" significantly more for this sample than did in-person sport activities. However, forgetting one's problems and escaping the real world for awhile was better gratified by attendance at live sporting event. And a learning function was present in this sample. While attention to broadcast sports activities did help these respondents learn about athletes, in-person attendance provided the stronger cognitive function about athlete information gain.

Although the regression analysis coefficients were all statistically significant, the results were disappointing. The RTV behavioral scale and gender variables were at best moderate predictors of sports consumption. However, this evidence is inconclusive and additional research efforts should be undertaken in this area of gratification studies.

In summary, this study supported the following conclusions: (1) sports consumers did receive social interaction gratifications with family and friends through both in-person attendance and broadcast sports; (2) Release from the emotional tensions was evident, although more so in live sports attendance; (3) Cognitive (informational) needs were gratified through attendance and broadcast activities; (4) Sports fans received ego satisfaction through the personal identity functions with athletes, although more so at in-person events; (5) Yelling and disputing officials calls and coaches' tactics during sports does provide a socially-approved outlet for otherwise unacceptable behavior, whether at live events or through para-social interaction with family, friends, or perhaps broadcast announcers.

In any research study there are limitations that could confound results. This study did not utilize a true random sample, therefore the ability to generalize to a larger population is restricted; however, the study did support previous findings of select areas of sports research. Additionally, the sample was not evenly distributed on the gender variable with females representing more than half of the sample group. Yet, the sample reflects the active sports consumer stereotype being male.

Future research endeavors in this area are needed. Improvement of the gratification scales could yield additional useful data. Also, the sample was comprised of college students. What variances might occur with older adults or junior high students?

Future studies employing and improving upon the techniques in this study should prove useful and contribute to the functional vein of mass communication theory. Additionally, such research endeavors might help provide a better understanding of the potential effects of sports upon our life styles, culture, and society.

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TABLE ONE

Percentage Comparison of Behavior
During Broadcast Sports

Behavior	Gender	Very Frequently	Rarely or not ar all
Talk about the action	Female	83.2	16.8
	Male	84.4	15.6
	(Chi-square = .003, NSD)		
Dispute official's call	Female	54.4	45.6
	Male	72.8	22.2
	(Chi-square = 11.44, 1DF, p<.0007)		
Applaud or yell in pleasure	Female	74.4	25.6
	Male	73.3	26.7
	(Chi-square = .002, NSD)		
Have beer or drink	Female	38.7	61.3
	Male	50.0	50.0
	(Chi-square = 2.26, NSD)		
Yell in anger	Female	41.1	58.9
	Male	57.8	42.2
	(Chi-square = 5.14, 1DF, p<.02)		
Pace the floor	Female	5.6	94.4
	Male	27.8	72.2
	(Chi-square = 18.38, 1DF, p<.0000)		
Dispute tactics of coach	Female	33.1	66.9
	Male	64.4	35.6
	(Chi-square = 19.4, 1DF, p<.0000)		
Talk even when alone	Female	49.2	50.8
	Male	68.9	31.1
	(Chi-square = 7.49, 1DF, p<.006)		
Get nervous as contest progresses	Female	54.4	45.6
	Male	72.2	27.8
	(Chi-square = 6.30, 1DF, p<.01)		
Angry when favorites do poorly	Female	49.6	50.4
	Male	67.4	32.6
	(Chi-square = 6.02, 1DF, p<.01)		
Depressed when favorites do poorly	Female	37.9	62.1
	Male	58.4	41.6
	(Chi-square = 7.96, 1DF, p<.004)		
Happy when favorites do well	Female	84.7	15.3
	Male	93.3	6.7
	(Chi-square = 3.88, 1DF, p<.05)		

TABLE TWO

Mean Gratifications Sought From Attendance at Sport Events (A) and Obtained from Broadcast Sports (B)

Gratifiction	Mean	T	p<
(A) Helps me get energized	2.36	5.76	0.000
(B) Helps me get energized	2.75		
(A) Allows me to let off steam	3.08	2.47	.01
(B) Allows me to get off steam	3.23		
(A) Chance to drink w/friends	3.01	2.58	.01
(B) Chance to drink w/friends	3.17		
(A) Let's me identify with athletes	2.81	2.82	.005
(B) Let's me identify with athletes	2.98		
(A) Helps me pass the time	2.82	5.82	.000
(B) Helps me pass the time	2.45		
(A) Helps me forget my problems	2.86	5.32	.000
(B) Helps me forget my problems	3.14		
(A) Helps me learn about athletes	2.31	4.31	0.000
(B) Helps me learn about athletes	2.59		
(A) Do something w/family & friends	1.70	9.15	0.000
(B) Do something w/family & friends	2.37		
(A) Helps me escape real world	2.97	2.69	.008
(B) Helps me escape real world	3.13		
(A) Helps me change my mood	2.37	7.76	0.000
(B) Helps me change my mood	2.86		
(A) Helps me feel less alone	3.44	2.71	.007
(B) Helps me feel less alone	3.08		
(A) Provides great feelings when favorites win	1.73	5.42	.000
(B) Provides great feelings when favorites win	2.02		
(A) Exciting when uncertain who'll win	2.23	2.97	.003
(B) Exciting when uncertain who'll win	2.40		
(A) Let's me yell at opponent	2.88	2.56	.011
(B) Let's me yell at opponent	3.03		
(A) Provides good announcer/commentator	3.21	6.96	.000
(B) Provides good announcer/commentator	2.79		
(A) I do because family/friends do it	3.03	2.03	.043
(B) I do because family/friends do it	2.91		
(A) Provides charge watching other fans go wild	2.68	5.33	.000
(B) Provides charge watching other fans go wild	3.02		

TABLE THREE

Select Percentage Gratification Comparisons of In-Person Sports Attendance

Gratification	Gender	Frequently	Rarely
Helps me learn about game	Female	75.4	24.6
	Male	40.9	59.1
	(Chi-square = 24.13, 1DF, p<.0000)		
Helps me learn about athletes	Female	69.7	30.3
	Male	54.5	45.5
	(Chi-square = 4.40, 1DF, p<.03)		
Allows me to let off steam	Female	19.7	80.3
	Male	34.8	65.2
	(Chi-square = 5.37, 1DF, p<.02)		
I do because family/friends do	Female	36.6	63.4
	Male	21.3	78.7
	(Chi-square = 4.98, 1DF, p<.02)		
Gives me conflict I enjoy	Female	30.1	69.9
	Male	46.6	53.4
	(Chi-square = 5.31, 1DF, p<.02)		
Let's me yell at opponent	Female	27.9	72.1
	Male	47.2	52.8
	(Chi-square = 7.51, 1DF, p<.006)		

TABLE FOUR

Select Percentage Comparisons of
Broadcast Sports Gratifications

Gratification	Gender	Frequently	Rarely
Allows me to let off steam	Female	12.2	87.8
	Male	30.3	69.7
	(Chi-square = 9.58, 1DF, p<.002)		
Helps relieve boredom	Female	45.5	54.5
	Male	58.9	41.1
	(Chi-square = 3.79. 1DF, p<.05)		
Helps pass the time	Female	51.2	48.8
	Male	66.7	33.3
	(Chi-square = 4.46, 1DF, p<.03)		
Helps me forget problems	Female	16.3	83.7
	Male	33.7	66.3
	(Chi-square = 7.78, 1DF, p<.005)		
Helps me relax	Female	34.1	65.9
	Male	54.4	45.6
	(Chi-square = 7.94, 1DF, p<.004)		
Helps me learn about game	Female	67.5	32.5
	Male	50	50
	(Chi-square = 5.83, 1DF, p<.01)		
Escape world for awhile	Female	19.5	80.5
	Male	34.1	65.9
	(Chi-square = 4.98, 1DF, p<.03)		
Gives me something to talk about	Female	41.8	58.2
	Male	58.6	41.1
	(Chi-square = 5.09, 1DF, p<.02)		
Exciting because uncertain outcome	Female	48.8	51.2
	Male	62.2	37.8
	(Chi-square = 3.79, 1DF, p<.05)		
Gives me conflict I enjoy	Female	30.9	69.1
	Male	45.5	54.5
	(Chi-square = 4.06, 1DF, p<.04)		
Gives me good announcers	Female	35.8	64.2
	Male	50.6	49.4
	(Chi-square = 4.40, 1DF, p<.04)		

TABLE FIVE

Regression of Combined Sports Consumption Measures on Salient Predictor Measures

Predictor	Beta	R	R^2	F	p<
RTV Behavior	.35	.489	.239	67.13	.01
Gender	.32	.578	.334	53.28	.01
In Person Attendance	.05	.582	.339	36.15	.01
Tune RTV	.04	.583	.340	27.05	.01